MCGSMUN 2017

STUDY GUIDE FOR CONFERENCE ON DISARMAMENT

AGENDA: CHALLENGES TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NUCLEAR WEAPONS FREE ZONE IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Are you paying full attention here,
or are you just skimming through?

LETTER FROM THE CHAIRPERSON

Kelsang Namgyal
Vice Chairperson

Sidharth Das
Chairperson

AUTHORS

I would like to first and foremost, express my gratitude to my Vice Chair, *Kelsang Namgyal*, who has worked harder on this Guide than myself. Without her efficiently completing entire sections of the agenda by herself, this kind of quality would not be possible.

I would also like to thank the Institution and the Advisor for giving us this chance to be part of this conference with all of you.

I will attempt to be honest and candid throughout this guide. In this Guide, we have tried to cover each and every part of what is relevant, from sections that can aid you in your preparation, how the committee will happen, along-side introducing the key aspects of the topic to you.

I do promise you though, a Delegate who has gone through the entire guide thoroughly, will be as close to a good delegate irrespective of their experience. I can confidently say this because by the time you reach the end of the guide, you would have proven that you are patient, hardworking, and willing to contribute to your own learning and success.

These are the essential traits of winners.

There are some innovations that we are trying out as well, and they depend solely on how well you receive and participate in them, such as trying to clarify your doubts before the conference and aid you in your preparation.

I wish you all the best for this journey.

Yours faithfully,

Sidharth Das
Email: firiael@gmail.com
Chairperson, Conference on Disarmament,
MCGSMUN 2017

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Note: All Headings are linked to their respective sections for accessibility.

SECTION I

ABOUT THE CONCEPT &
HOW YOU ARE AN INTEGRAL PART OF IT

WHY ARE WE NOT ABLE TO PERFORM DESPITE OUR PREPARATION?
&
WHAT TO DO INSTEAD?

NOTE: This is as important for your teachers and delegation members, as it is for you. Please make them read this as well when you get a chance.

In the first few conferences we attend, we are usually without guidance and employ a technique of hit and trial to perform. **It might be a few conferences before we can say that people listen to us when we speak, or that we are not standing on the side-lines of a debate in an unmoderated caucus, but rather in the 'inner circle'.** This list of recommendations is not exhaustive, but seeks to guide one towards being an effective participant in a Model UN Conference.

A PATH TO SUCCESS IS NOT THE SAME AS THE DESIRE TO SUCCEED

The first thing is to think deeply about our *aims*. It is something that few people do, except in the broadest of terms. Now, I do not mean aims such as "I want to be the Best Delegate", or "I must get the prize money being offered". I mean aims that are related to participating in the activity. Answer some questions and honestly record your answers.

- Why did you choose this MUN and this committee?
- Does the topic interest you or is it just one that you have read about before?
- Do you seek to win by ensuring that you have the last word on each topic?
- If we talk in percentages, what is the percentage of time that you listen to others in a committee versus the percentage of time that you expect others to listen to you?

When you record your answers, try to search for consistency. Do not be worried if it does not appear suddenly. Your answers may indicate that the first reaction to these questions is silence, or half made thoughts without clarity. It is the same with most people who are going to be sitting with you through these three days.

Now try to consciously pen down a few aims. Again, trying to answer the following questions might help.

- Do you believe in research and the power of information, or rely on your spontaneity to deal with topics?
- Can you listen to someone and ask questions to know more about the topic?
- When you are listening, do you tend to take down notes word by word, or in short bullet points?
- Do you tend to write down a speech, or just points that you refer to while making a speech?
- Do you usually find yourself to be the one talking to people during an unmoderated caucus, or writing down things other people are saying?
- When you hear something you haven't heard before, do you write it down and analyse it, or do you form an interpretation and record your response?

It might appear that these things have nothing to do with being an effective delegate. I will ask you to just play along for a little while. Now let us try and cull out a few aims for ourselves.

DO YOU WISH TO LEAD THE DEBATE, OR DO YOU WISH TO FOLLOW OTHERS?

- What is it that you possess that makes you a good leader? What are your strengths?
- Do you research tirelessly and try to be the most well informed person in the committee?
- Do you have the ability to dissect the agenda and understand the different sub-topics?
- Are you a problem solver? Do you help others around you who want to contribute but don't know how to?
- Do you take swift and well-reasoned decisions most of the time?
- Do you speak to people with the expectation that they have to listen to you, but do not return the favour when they speak?

There are several types of leadership, and not all of them positive.

It is important to understand, that to lead the debate, it is very important to be flexible in one's approach. The first assumption that I am making is that when you step into the committee, you do not know every person there. **Lead by example**. That is to say, if you wish for others to listen to you when you make a speech in your GSL, then do the same when others make their speeches. If you want them to remember and appreciate your words, do the same for them. When you are able to listen and retain the words and thoughts of others, it is easier for them to extend the same courtesy to you. That is when they give you the authority to take decisions for them when they are in a group.

Another aspect is your approach towards the debate. *Are you comfortable in showing that you are a part of the debate, or do you have to give importance to your own points when you get the committee time?* Remember, that over these two or three days, only a fixed amount of time is slotted for debate. Usually it is not more than six hours a day. The committee strength usually has a minimum of fifteen people. This is why there are fewer recognition problems in a Security Council, when compared to a medium sized committee, say a Human Rights Council. The maximum recognition issues emerge in large committees like the General Assembly, with more than sixty or seventy delegates present. I have presented a table below to compare the speaking time an individual approximately has in each of these committees.

Committee	Strength	Total Time (Per Day)	Individual Time (Per Day)
Security Council	15-20	6 hours or 360 minutes	24-18 minutes
Human Rights Council	40-50		9-7 minutes
General Assembly	70-100		5-3 minutes

Now, if I imagine debate as a list of points made about a topic, and write down the country/portfolio of a delegate next to the point made, would you like for your own country/portfolio to be next to majority of the points raised in the committee?

A few observations to be noted here are:

- In a situation where there is such limited time for each person to speak, people tend to take more on a regular basis.

- This results in speakers overshooting their speaking times by a few minutes almost every single time that they are recognised. They do this because they feel that they will only be recognized once in that particular form of debate.

- If everyone starts following the trend (as they usually do), we have moderated caucuses where delegates are trying to speak at a fast pace to include all their points in one speech, or unmoderated caucuses where it begins by trying to wrestle others into accepting you as the leader before the points about debate are even brought to the forefront.

- One can safely assume that for someone who has researched, and has an opinion, the feeling of paucity of time will be mutual.

In light of this feeling, one can lead by moderating the debate, both in formal and informal types of debate. For example, in an unmoderated caucus, try to assume the role of an empathetic moderator, just like the Executive Board does in formal debate. You do not have to respond to the points made by every person, but rather let them express their points. While you are at it, try noting these points down in a similar kind of a list I talked about when I visualise debate. You will find that others are more willing to listen to you speak if they know that you have taken their points into consideration.

Similarly, in a moderated caucus, try to keep some time allotted to you to build upon points made by others. This does not mean that you have to just summarise all the points made. This also does not mean that you have to critique every point made by the others. Try to appreciate with honesty the thoughts of others, irrespective or whether you agree with them or not. If possible, build upon some of the points made that are well structured and pertinent to debate. More often such points are brought to the front, the more you are seen as guiding debate.

Some delegates try to assert their authority by becoming de facto judges in the committee. These are the ones you will often see resorting to points of orders, or beginning their responses with a "But". The more one reads, the easier it is to spot mistakes made by others while talking about the topic. This is another place where the approach determines the quality of leadership.

- When you spot a mistake, do you tend to keep listening until the speaker has finished, or do you feel a need to interrupt and correct the other person?

- Would you rather raise a Point of Order and get validation by the Executive Board, or would you rather communicate your point of view to the delegate who made the error?

Those who communicate with other delegates more than the Executive Board, often find themselves being accepted to lead the group than those who have to force others to listen to them. Delegates are willing to share points and opinions freely with someone who they feel will not judge them, rather listen to them and counsel them. Only when one becomes a repository for multiple points, arguments and solutions, they become integral to the committee. All others are replaceable. **Once there is an acceptance by the other delegates, you really start to lead a group.**

LEADERS UNDERSTAND THOSE WHO THEY LEAD

- What happens when you lead?
- Do you tend to force your opinion on everyone else and tell them what to do?
- Do you take the points others have made and try to pass them off as your own in front of the Executive Board?

This is the point where it is easy to lose track of the aims you made for yourself at the beginning of the conference. Remember your goal, and the goals in front of the committee as a whole.

For this, **learn how to recognise the good things and skills others have**.

In every committee, there are those who are hesitant to speak and are easy to overlook while scouting out competition. Often, among these individuals will be those who can listen very well and document what is being said. There are also those who are critical, but not out of habit. These delegates have research and information at hand to validate or invalidate points and opinions. You might also find some delegates who are good at explaining things to others, especially those people who tend to question everything that is said.

All of the above are people of value to a group and a leader.

If you identify these people early, learn to delegate tasks to them that plays to their strengths, without appearing to be limiting their participation in the committee to just that task. An example of the same might be trusting those that can document, to record all the points being contributed by the group faithfully, while those who are critical evaluate the points and build upon them. Those who are good at explanations can then present the points to different sets of people, depending upon their level of interest and understanding.

CONCLUSION

Do you like music by any chance?

To give you a perspective in an entirely unrelated field, see the following video:
https://www.ted.com/talks/itay_talgam_lead_like_the_great_conductors

"An orchestra conductor faces the ultimate leadership challenge: creating perfect harmony without saying a word. In this charming talk, Itay Talgam demonstrates the unique styles of six great 20th-century conductors, illustrating crucial lessons for all leaders."

I hope there are a few things to ponder over in this letter. If you have any queries regarding the committee, you can write to the Executive Board (refer to the section regarding the Platform for clarifying doubts before the Conference in this Guide).

Looking forward to meeting you!

Yours sincerely,
Sidharth Das

IMPORTANT INFORMATION FOR DELEGATES

FLOW OF THE COMMITTEE

We will be guiding you along the debate and its different stages using some unconventional techniques that you might not have witnessed during other MUNs if you are experienced. If you are attending for the first time, all the better, because *all you need to do is be thorough with what is given in the guide, and have what you understood and what you did not written down.*

Documentation is going to be an integral part of all the stages. We don't mean just Working Papers and Draft Resolutions, they will come at a later stage. We'll introduce the form of documentation at the beginning of each stage and help you work on it through the unmoderated caucuses.

Try to document your thoughts and opinions as you are reading up the background guide or researching about various topics given in this guide. This will give you the required material to do well in each stage of the debate.

Delegates can also discuss amongst themselves and propose changes to [Rules of Procedure](#) that they think will help them perform. The Executive Board will take a decision on the Proposals that reach them with the agreement of everyone in Council.

Small activities will take place either at the beginning or the end of each stage to help consolidate our learning from each stage as a group, as well as individuals.

ON GIVING AND RECEIVING FEEDBACK
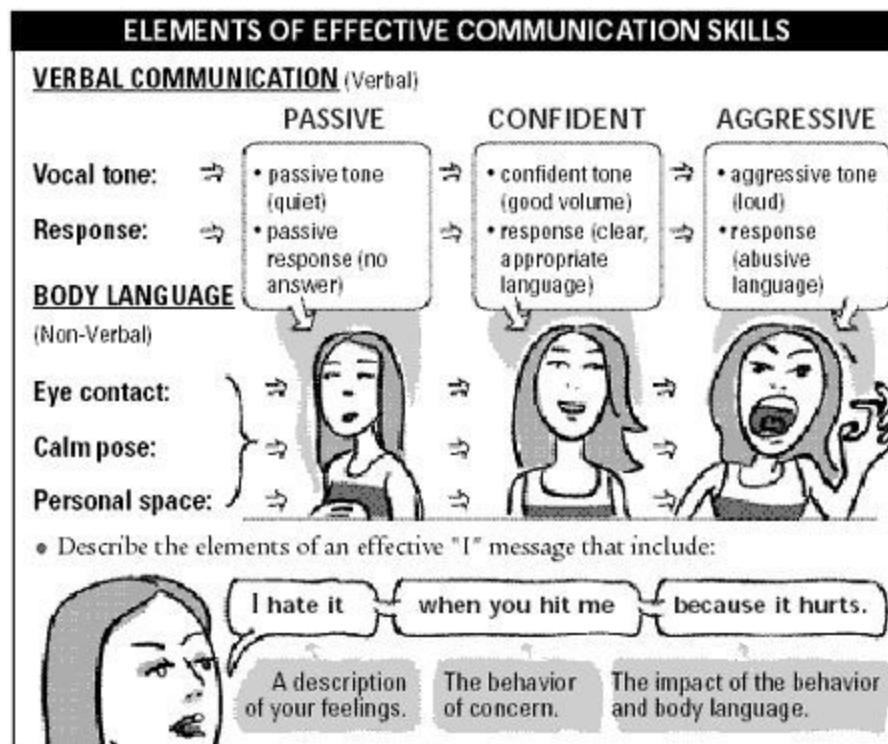
We recommend that you give us critical feedback at the end of each stage, that is, at least once a day so that we can make the experience better for you. For understanding how to give critical feedback effectively, you could go through this simple article:

FORBES | [How To Give Critical Feedback Effectively](#)

The opposite is as important since the Executive Board will also be giving you feedback at the end of the Conference, and wherever necessary, in between the different stages, for improving upon your performance. Read the following:

FORBES | [How To Receive Feedback And Criticism](#)

ABOUT RULES OF PROCEDURE
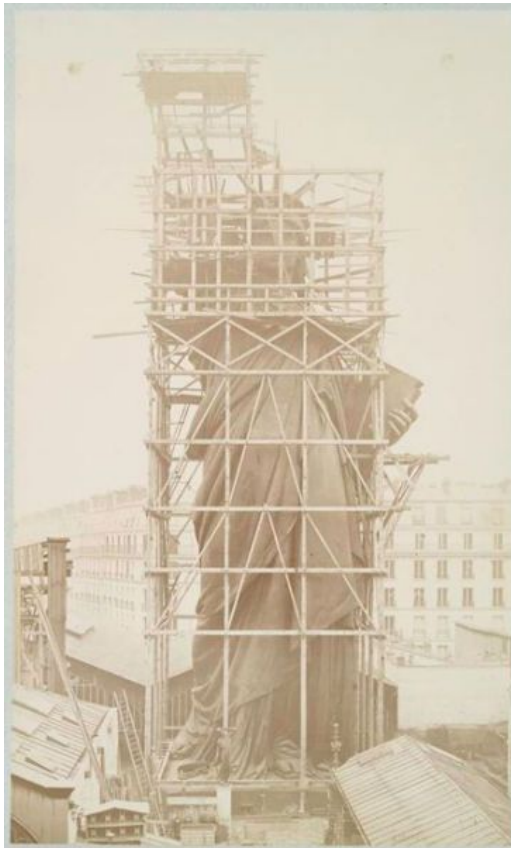
Statue of Liberty under construction (1870s)   Statue of Liberty Today

Rules of Procedure are the scaffolding to building great debate in a committee. It is important to understand them in how they are applied, and the purpose of each part, but only to give shape to the debate in the committee. *Sometimes, they might look rigid and pretty much useless, but their purpose is not to look amazing. Their purpose is to support an experience that is rich and passionate, which we only realise in the end.*

Don't worry too much if you are unable to grasp all of it in the first go. We'll help you with that in the committee. Focus on unwritten aspects by asking yourself questions. For example, if a GSL Speech is for 90 seconds, how will you use this time to convey your ideas? If at the end, it is possible to have Yields to Points of Information (Questions), can you think of questions to ask others? If a moderated caucus is on a subtopic of the main agenda, can you try and make a few sub-topics per section, as you go through this guide?

Doing this will help you much more than just remembering the terminologies by heart. And, you know what to do if you have doubts, right? You can [download the MUN Preparation Handbook with Rules of Procedure here.](#)

PRE-CONFERENCE PLATFORM FOR QUERIES/CLARIFICATIONS

We believe that it is important to clarify your doubts as early on as possible, to help you overcome the challenges that you are facing in your preparation for this committee.

Usually, the first time we see and discuss things with each other is during the first day of the conference. This takes up valuable debate time and leaves much to be desired from how we manage time. After working so hard on research, spending hours getting stuck on procedure might seem off the point. For this reason, a platform has been set up where the Executive Board will engage with your doubts, queries and clarifications on a Google Spreadsheet, where we can resolve your doubts, help you with your preparation, and you can also benefit from reading the answers to questions posed by others!

Such platforms work only if the delegate takes the first step; no matter how scared you are, starting asking questions. Asking questions is the only way to those answers that you wish you had earlier at the end of three days.

[Click here to Explore and Use the Online Platform as much as you can!](#)

Once you read the headings of each column there, you will be able to understand the format for filling it in. Don't be shy, whether it's a simple doubt or a complex question, we will be able to guide you through your challenges.

SECTION II

ABOUT THE COMMITTEE WE ARE SIMULATING

ABOUT THE CONFERENCE ON DISARMAMENT

Introduction

The Conference on Disarmament (CD)[1], established in 1979, is the single multilateral disarmament negotiating forum of the international community, to negotiate multilateral arms control and disarmament agreements. It was a result of the first Special Session on Disarmament of the United Nations General Assembly (SSOD-I) held in 1978. It succeeded other Geneva-based negotiating fora, which include the Ten-Nation Committee on Disarmament (1960), the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament (1962-68), and the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament (1969-78).

While the conference is not formally a United Nations entity, it is linked to the UN through a Personal Representative of the United Nations Secretary-General; the current Director-General of UNOG (United Nations Office at Geneva)[2] is the Secretary-General of the Conference on Disarmament as well as the Personal Representative of the UN Secretary-General to the CD. Resolutions adopted by the UN General Assembly often request the Conference to consider specific disarmament matters. In turn, the conference *annually* reports[3] its activities to the Assembly.

---

[1] https://www.un.org/disarmament/geneva/cd/an-introduction-to-the-conference/ | CD-Introduction
[2] https://www.unog.ch/ | Official Website of UN Office in Geneva
[3] https://www.un.org/disarmament/geneva/cd/annual-reports/ | Annual Reports of the CD to the UNGA

Topics of Discussion

The terms of reference of the CD include practically all multilateral arms control and disarmament problems.

Currently the CD primarily focuses its attention on the following issues:

- cessation of the nuclear arms race and nuclear disarmament;
- prevention of nuclear war, including all related matters;
- prevention of an arms race in outer space;
- effective international arrangements to assure non-nuclear-weapon States against the use or threat of use of nuclear weapons (this is also called negative security assurances);
- new types of weapons of mass destruction and new systems of such weapons including radiological weapons;
- comprehensive programme of disarmament and transparency in armaments.

Documents Relating to the Core Issues

- Fissile Material
- Nuclear Disarmament
- Negative Security Assurances
- Prevention of an arms race in outer space

Working

As originally constituted, the CD had 40 members. Subsequently its membership was gradually expanded (and reduced) to 65 countries. The CD has invited other UN Member States that have expressed a desire to participate in the CD's substantive discussions, to take part in its work as non-member States. The CD and its predecessors have negotiated such major multilateral arms limitation and disarmament agreements such as:

- **NPT** - Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons[4]
- Environmental Modification Convention (**ENMOD**) - Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques[5]
- **Seabed Treaty** - Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of Nuclear Weapons and Other Weapons of Mass Destruction on the Sea-Bed and the Ocean Floor and in the Subsoil thereof[6]
- **BWC** - Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction[7]

---

[4] https://www.un.org/disarmament/wmd/nuclear/npt/ | Details about the NPT
[5] https://www.un.org/disarmament/geneva/enmod/ | Details about the ENMOD
[6] http://disarmament.un.org/treaties/t/sea_bed | Status of Ratifications and Text of the Seabed Treaty
[7] https://www.un.org/disarmament/geneva/bwc/ | Details about the BWC

- **CWC** - Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on Their Destruction[8]
- **CTBT** - Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty[9]

SECTION III

WHY IS OUR AGENDA IMPORTANT?

---

[8] https://www.opcw.org/chemical-weapons-convention/ | Details about the CWC
[9] https://www.un.org/disarmament/wmd/nuclear/ctbt/ | Details about the CTBT

RELEVANCE OF THE AGENDA

Nuclear Weapons Free Zones and their Significance

Several regions of the world have previously become Nuclear Weapons Free Zones (NWFZ), which has been significant in reducing political tensions and the threat of a global nuclear arms race (this is also called confidence building measures of *CBMs*). *A NWFZ is a zone recognised by the UN, where there is absence of nuclear weapons and where an international system of verification is established "to guarantee compliance with the obligations under the IAEA statute".* Examples of this are NWFZs in Africa, Latin America, Southeast Asia, and most recently in Central Asia.

The establishment of such a zone is controlled through an agreement between the countries of the region, without any participation by other countries of the world in the process of negotiation. To paraphrase, it follows a *regional approach*, where only people living in that region have a say over the matter. Therefore, NWFZ negotiations aren't subject to the dominance of other nuclear weapon states, nor are they subject to any veto in the Security Council. This regional approach does face some issues from the influence that other states might have over the countries part of the region. For example, think about how powerful states like the P5 have used their influence in the past and are using it in the present to shape the world to their liking.

The importance of NWFZs lies in its ultimate goal to abolish nuclear weapons in different geographical regions and eventually, the world. It works towards eliminating the possibility of a nuclear war, region by region. The states who sign the binding treaties move towards disarmament, thus improving regional security and reliance. Analysis of some of the NWFZs have shown that they have two fundamental criteria common to them -

a. *they have a strong regional bond* and
b. *they have stable relationships with nuclear weapon states (who give NWFZs certain "security guarantees" against the use of nuclear weapons against them)*.

It has been proven that the establishment of NWFZs has a tremendous role in non-proliferation and disarmament. This task, which seems complex and impossible to many, could be a success if continued with the same strategy, i.e., to first turn regions to NWFZs and then ultimately, to turn the world into a more secure, disarmed place.

A secondary but long-term aspect of such a measure, is the faith it builds in states, which can now direct their energies and resources to build up their economies. Sharing of people, goods and services in these regions becomes easier, and this opens up many opportunities to enter many bilateral and multilateral agreements for growth.

Situation in the Middle East and its Challenges

The Middle East, as we know, has been a politically unstable region for several decades. It has been marred with crises related to extremist movements, political tensions arising from religious disputes, with religious and cultural differences forming a strong foundation for these disputes. Presence of terrorist groups like the Al Qaeda have played an integral role is disrupting state machinery and causing widespread damage to life and property in the region. These groups exploit fragile situations to gain control and profit from spreading terror. Examples of this can be seen through the daily bombings and persecution of rights and freedoms in Yemen, Iraq, Afghanistan, Syria, Libya, Lebanon, etc.

However, the biggest threat (in terms of the magnitude of destructive potential) to the stability of the region is the issue of proliferation of nuclear weapons of mass destruction. With few guarantees of governments' stability and intent, the possession of such weapons is a major cause of worry.

Although there are guidelines in treaties that have been successful in converting regions into NWFZs, the Middle East has unique challenges of its own. *Certain issues further complicate the attempt to establish a Nuclear Weapon Free Zone in the Middle East.* Some of these are:

a. Israel giving no clarity on whether it possesses nuclear weapons or not (also termed as *nuclear ambiguity*),
b. *Iran's nuclear enrichment program* and firm political ideology, and
c. *Non-recognition of statehood* - Israel isn't recognised as a state by 31 nation states, including Iran, Syria, Palestine and Lebanon. *Without official diplomatic relations, negotiations cannot consist of all state parties in the region.*
d. In many countries, *governments are in flux right now,* and support for various political groups has been expressed by the nations rather than trust in one consolidated vested authority.
e. *The presence of extremist groups* like ISIS , whose ideological goal to create a large-scale theocracy made up of Syria, parts of Iraq, Lebanon, and much of Palestine and Jordan.

These issues are intricately linked to each other and have defied efforts to resolve them to the satisfaction of all stakeholders, including the governments, citizens, ideological groups, and international players.

Other technical questions that need to be tackled are deciding whether political or geographical parameters be considered to determine the area of application, the exact nature of "nuclear weapons", as opposed to "nuclear explosive devices", etc.

SECTION IV

BACKGROUND TO NUCLEAR WEAPONS FREE ZONES

HISTORY OF NWFZ INITIATIVES

Legend:
- ■ Countries with nuclear-weapon-free legislation
- ■ Countries in nuclear-weapon-free zones

Treaty of Semipalatinsk (5)
Austria
Mongolia
Treaty of Pelindaba (52)
Philipines
Treaty of Tlatelolco (33)
Treaty of Bankok (10)
Antarctic Treaty
New Zealand
Treaty of Rarotonga (13)
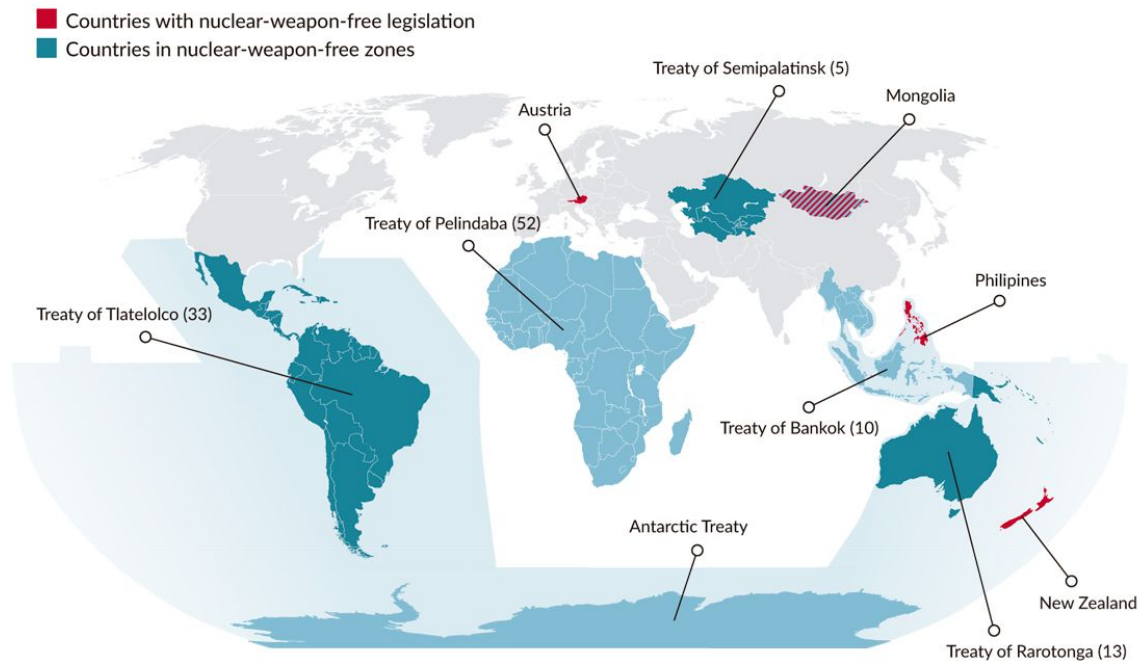
The following treaties form the basis for the existing NWFZs:

- [Treaty of Tlatelolco](#) — Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean

- [Treaty of Rarotonga](#) — South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty

- [Treaty of Bangkok](#) — Treaty on the Southeast Asia Nuclear Weapon-Free Zone

- [Treaty of Pelindaba](#) — African Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty

- [Treaty on a Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone in Central Asia](#)

The early years

The initial catalyst for the development of the NWFZ concept and strategy occurred during the early years of the cold war, in 1957—just 12 years after the first nuclear weapons were dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

November 1945. Hiroshima, Japan. Credit: Hiroshima Peace Memorial Museum/US Army/Reuters

This was at a time when many middle powers and non-aligned states had become dissatisfied with the progress on disarmament on the part of the two major powers, the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), or—at the very least—with their failure to provide guarantees that NWSs would not use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against non-nuclear-weapon states. The cold war had divided Central Europe into Warsaw Pact member states (Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Hungary and Poland) and North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) member states.

Towards the end of 1957 the Polish foreign minister, Adam Rapacki, called for the establishment of a Central European NWFZ, which would cover Czechoslovakia, both German republics and Poland. This was rejected by the United Kingdom and the United States (although positively received by Belgium, Canada, Norway and Sweden), largely on the basis that nuclear weapons needed to be deployed in Central Europe to balance and deter numerically superior Warsaw Pact conventional forces stationed in the region. Despite the rejection, Rapacki's innovative concept proved relevant to other regions and was taken up in a number of international forums, and particularly at the United Nations.

Many of the essential principles and features of subsequent successfully established regional NWFZ treaties are to be found in the Rapacki Plan. These include the requirement that there be a complete absence of nuclear weapons in the zonal region, that there be adequate and effective inspection, verification and compliance systems, and that the NWSs provide binding guarantees not to use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against zone members.

During the late 1950s and early 1960s, as the cold war nuclear arms race intensified, further NWFZ proposals were advanced for a number of regions, including Africa, East Asia and Europe. All of the proposals were rejected by the Western NWSs on the grounds that regional deployment of nuclear weapons was necessary to counter the numerically superior conventional forces of their cold war adversaries. Despite the coolness of the Western powers to these initial NWFZ proposals, the first NWFZ to be actually established was an initiative of the United States—the 1959 Antarctic Treaty. The treaty established a nuclear-weapon-free-and-demilitarized-zone *by prohibiting military bases, manoeuvres and weapons testing (Article I), and banning nuclear explosions and disposing radioactive waste (Article V)*. At this time there was increasing regional and international concern over the health impacts of radioactive fallout from atmospheric nuclear testing in several regions of the world (Central Asia, Oceania and the Sahara).

In 1962 the Cuban Missile Crisis greatly heightened international and regional awareness of the risks of a major nuclear conflict. This led to the negotiation of the Partial Test Ban Treaty and renewed interest in NWFZs.

Cuban Missile Crisis

For 13 days in October 1962 the world hovered on the brink of nuclear war, with the United States and the Soviet Union locked in a standoff at the height of the Cold War

- ⊕ Soviet missile site
- ⊙ U.S. military base
- ⌒ U.S. blockade enforced by 180 ships

SS-5 range: 3,540km

SS-4: 1,770km

24 SS-4 medium-range and 16 SS-5 intermediate-range launchers, loaded with two missiles, each with 1-megaton nuclear warhead

UNITED STATES — Washington — U.S. — SS-5

Miami — THE BAHAMAS — ATLANTIC OCEAN

Gulf of Mexico

Guanajay IRBM site
San Cristobal MRBM site
Sagua La Grande MRBM site
Remedios IRBM site

Cuba-bound Soviet ships

Havana — CUBA

MEXICO — GUATEMALA — BELIZE — HONDURAS — NICARAGUA — JAMAICA

Bay of Pigs — Guantanamo Bay

HAITI — DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Puerto Rico (U.S.)

CARIBBEAN SEA

400km / 250 miles
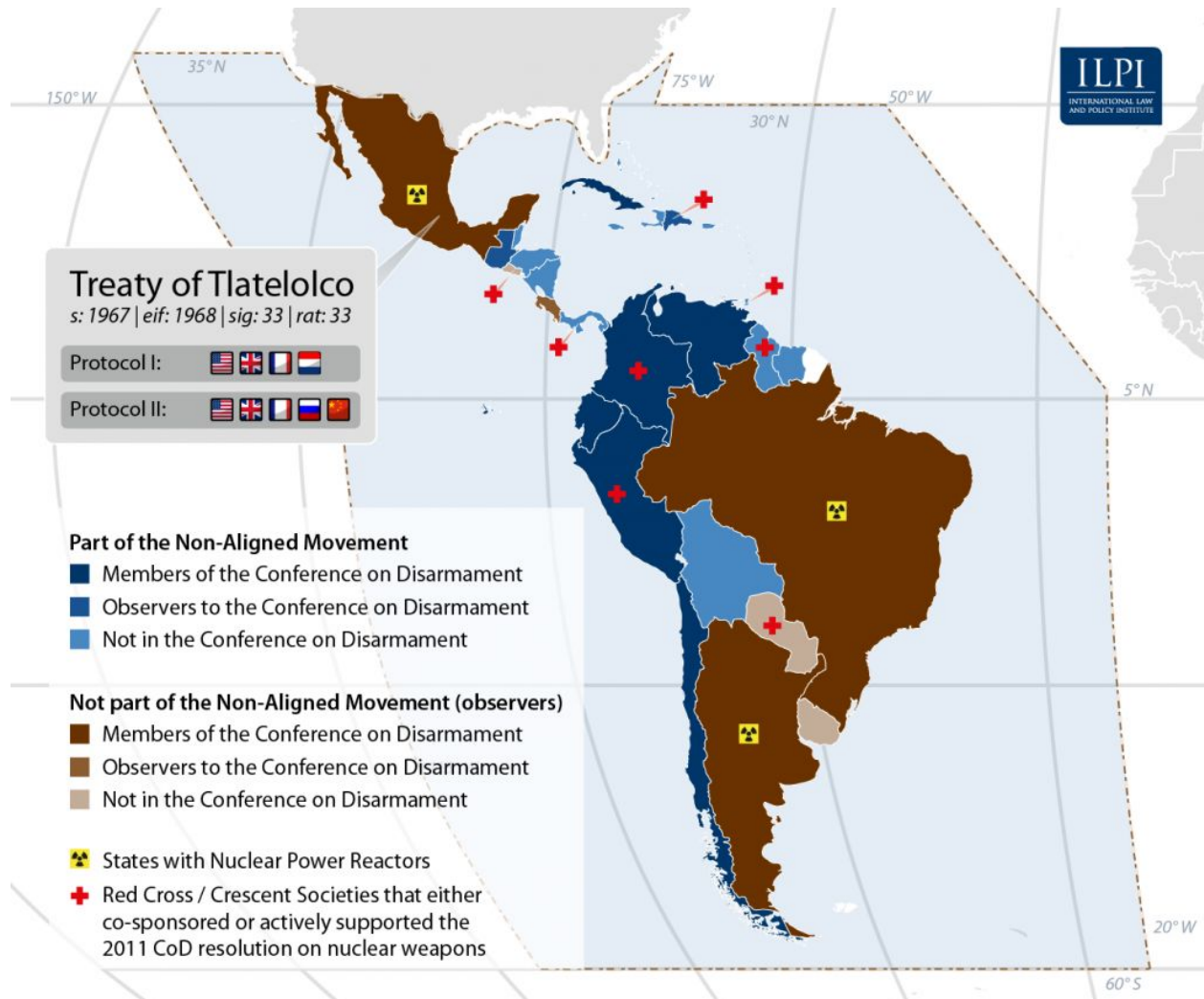
- **Apr 1961:** Soviet Union increases support of *Fidel Castro's* regime in Cuba after *Bay of Pigs* invasion
- **Sep 1962:** Soviet leader *Nikita Khrushchev* gives go-ahead to install nuclear missiles on Cuba to defend island from U.S. invasion
- **Oct 14:** American U-2 spy plane obtains photographs of missile sites on Cuba
- **Oct 16:** U.S. President *John F. Kennedy* convenes *ExComm* – group of senior advisors – to tackle crisis

- **Oct 18:** ExComm told installation of SS-4 missiles is nearly complete
- **Oct 22:** Kennedy makes TV address, declaring naval blockade of Cuba and warning U.S. will retaliate if any Soviet missile is launched from Cuba
- All U.S. military forces worldwide ordered to go to DEFCON 3 – heightened state of nuclear alert
- **Oct 24:** Soviet ships carrying military equipment to Cuba reverse course as they near quarantine zone

- **Oct 24:** Khrushchev says blockade is "an act of aggression". U.S. forces go to DEFCON 2 – highest alert status short of war
- **Oct 25:** CIA reports SS-4 missiles are ready to fire – Kennedy considers invasion
- **Oct 26:** Soviets offer to dismantle sites if U.S. pledges not to invade Cuba
- **Oct 27:** Khrushchev now demands removal of U.S. missile sites from Turkey
- U2 plane shot down over Cuba, killing U.S. pilot – war looks imminent

- **Oct 27:** Kennedy offers to end blockade and not invade Cuba if Soviets withdraw missiles
- **Oct 28:** Khrushchev announces removal of missiles in exchange for U.S. pledge never to invade Cuba. Deal to remove U.S. missiles from Turkey not made public
- **Nov 20:** Naval blockade lifted after Soviet missiles withdrawn
- **Apr 1963:** U.S. missiles in Turkey dismantled – kept secret until 1989
- **Aug 30:** "Hotline" – direct communication between Moscow and Washington – goes into operation

© GRAPHIC NEWS   Pictures: AP, Getty Images   Sources: Cold War by Isaacs and Downing, cubanmissilecrisis.org

Latin America

Treaty of Tlatelolco
s: 1967 | eif: 1968 | sig: 33 | rat: 33

Protocol I:

Protocol II:

Part of the Non-Aligned Movement
- Members of the Conference on Disarmament
- Observers to the Conference on Disarmament
- Not in the Conference on Disarmament

Not part of the Non-Aligned Movement (observers)
- Members of the Conference on Disarmament
- Observers to the Conference on Disarmament
- Not in the Conference on Disarmament

- ☢ States with Nuclear Power Reactors
- ✚ Red Cross / Crescent Societies that either co-sponsored or actively supported the 2011 CoD resolution on nuclear weapons

While calls for African and Nordic NWFZs made little headway at this time, one very successful regional initiative did emerge. *Six months after the Cuban Missile Crisis, five Latin American states—Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador and Mexico—called for a multilateral agreement to denuclearize Latin America, following an earlier suggestion from Costa Rica in 1959.* The result was the Treaty of Tlatelolco, the first NWFZ treaty to cover a populated region, which was signed by 21 Latin American states in 1967. Similar to the Rapacki Plan, the key features of the zone included: a ban on nuclear weapons, whether developed or acquired by zone members themselves or introduced by NWSs; an inspection and verification system; and undertakings by NWSs not to use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against states in the zone. *The ban on external stationing of nuclear weapons was particularly relevant given the stationing of both tactical and intermediate-range nuclear missiles in Cuba before and during the Missile Crisis by the USSR.*

The South Pacific

The late 1960s and early 1970s witnessed major conflicts in Cambodia, Laos and Viet Nam. The potential for conventional wars to escalate to nuclear exchanges was of international concern and generated continued interest in regional denuclearization. Within the Pacific there were regional concerns focusing on a range of nuclear issues, including French underground nuclear testing in French Polynesia, proposed nuclear waste-dumping and nuclear-armed ship visits to Pacific ports. The successful negotiation of the Treaty of Tlatelolco had served to inspire states in the South Pacific. In 1975 Fiji, New Zealand and Papua New Guinea sought support at the United Nations for a South Pacific NWFZ. In the same year the United Nations brought together government experts from around the world to conduct the first major comprehensive study of NWFZs. This study made a major contribution to clarifying the principles, provisions and applicability of such zones. *Many of the newly independent Pacific islands, such as Fiji, Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu, were strongly in favour of creating such a zone, and peace and disarmament movements in Australia and New Zealand were successful in pressing their governments to actively pursue South Pacific NWFZ negotiations.* The result was the 1985 Treaty of Rarotonga, arising from negotiations chaired by Australia. The treaty not only banned the same categories of nuclear weapon activities as the Treaty of Tlatelolco, but also widened the provisions to prohibit nuclear testing anywhere in the zone (including international waters within the zone boundaries) and the dumping of nuclear waste at sea.

The Korean Peninsula

An early (but not pursued) NWFZ proposal was advanced in 1972 by a study of the Korean Peninsula commissioned by the US Arms Control and Disarmament Agency. The study cited the Treaty of Tlatelolco as an important precedent and recommended restrictions on the deployment or utilization of nuclear weapons—nuclear-weapon-free-zone or no-first-use agreements. In 1980 President Kim Il Sung of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea proposed a Korean NWFZ in which the testing, stockpiling and use of nuclear weapons would be prohibited.

In Vladivostok, in 1985, Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev proposed an all Asian conference that would include the consideration of NWFZs on the Korean Peninsula and in South-East Asia and the offer of negative security guarantees by NWSs to the states in the region. *The proposal was dismissed on the grounds of the need for military flexibility in deploying nuclear weapons regionally to counter numerically superior conventional forces of China and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea.*

Despite these previous US concerns, the two Koreas agreed in 1992 on a Joint Declaration on the Denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula. *This would have established an NWFZ in the region, but the agreement failed to be implemented—in part due to a growing mistrust between the parties over inspection issues, but also due to the absence of key elements of an NWFZ, which included rigorous compliance mechanisms and non-use or threat of use guarantees from the NWSs.*

While the subsequent Six -Party Talks reached further agreements on Korean Peninsula denuclearization, these too were to founder on continued mistrust and non-implementation of agreed steps. The Democratic People's Republic of Korea subsequently went on to withdraw from the NPT in 2003 and conduct nuclear weapons tests in 2006 and 2009. Over the last decade and a half academic institutes, media commentators and regional peace organizations have continued to advocate strongly for NWFZ arrangements in the North-East Asian region.

The Arctic and Northern Europe

Indeed, the international situation is still complicated. The dangers to which we have no right to turn a blind eye remain. There has been some change, however, or, at least, change is starting. Certainly, judging the situation only from the speeches made by top Western leaders, including their "programme" statements, everything would seem to be as it was before: the same anti-Soviet attacks, the same demands that we show our commitment to peace by renouncing our order and principles, the same confrontational language: "totalitarianism", "communist expansion", and so on.

Within a few days, however, these speeches are often forgotten, and, at any rate, the theses contained in them do not figure during businesslike political negotiations and contacts. This is a very interesting point, an interesting phenomenon. It confirms that we are dealing with yesterday's rhetoric, while real life processes have been set into motion. This means that something is indeed changing. One of the elements of the change is that it is now difficult to convince people that our foreign policy, our initiatives, our nuclear-free world programme are mere "propaganda".

-Mikhail Gorbachev, Murmansk, 1 Oct. 1987

Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev advanced a major initiative for denuclearization of the Arctic and Northern Europe in his 1987 Murmansk speech. He proposed that the Arctic be transformed into an international zone of peace through a range of measures, including the establishment of a Northern Europe NWFZ, agreements to restrict naval activities in Arctic seas and cooperation on scientific research and indigenous affairs. This initiative was supported by neither the Western NWSs nor their NATO, Arctic littoral allies (Canada, Denmark and Norway).

South-East Asia

The Treaty of Bangkok evolved from the earlier 1971 Zone of Peace, Freedom and Neutrality in South-East Asia (ZOPFAN) initiative of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) advanced by the five founding members (Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand). This was in response to concern about NWS military bases and nuclear weapon transit by plane and sea in the region. *When the NWSs with military bases in the region—the Russian Federation in Viet Nam and the United States in the Philippines— closed their bases, implementation of the zone became more feasible politically.* The Treaty of Bangkok in 1995 established an NWFZ with the same key denuclearization features as the Treaty of Rarotonga and the Treaty of Tlatelolco—but went further by extending the zone's provisions to cover the exclusive economic zones of states parties to the treaty. This move has complicated the willingness of NWSs to provide the sought-after security guarantees.

Africa

Like the South-East Asian zone, the African NWFZ Treaty—the Treaty of Pelindaba—took many years before it was signed in 1996, and it was only made possible by major changes in the African political landscape. Calls for an African NWFZ began in the early 1960s, at the time of French testing in the Sahara. Later, fresh concerns began to arise about South Africa's nuclear intentions and programmes. *South Africa commenced a nuclear energy development programme in 1948, progressed to uranium enrichment in 1970, weapons development in 1977, and by the early 1990s had a stockpile of six nuclear weapons.* As early as 1964 the Organization of African Unity (OAU, now the African Union) issued a Declaration on the Denuclearization of Africa. In 1990 the UN General Assembly approved a new resolution calling for the implementation of the 1964 declaration and the establishment of a meeting of experts "for the preparation and implementation of a convention or treaty on the denuclearization of Africa". The Treaty of Pelindaba contains similar denuclearization provisions to the Treaty of Rarotonga and the Treaty of Tlatelolco. However, *it also contains special provisions for the dismantling of existing nuclear-weapon-related facilities.* It was also the first zone in which the United Nations had played a direct role in facilitating successful NWFZ negotiations through its joint chairing of the negotiations with the OAU.

Mongolia

Mongolia declared itself a single-state NWFZ in 1992, and sought recognition for this status at the United Nations through negotiations at the United Nations Disarmament Commission and subsequent General Assembly resolutions. *In 1998 there was unanimous support at the General Assembly for Mongolia's NWFZ status, while the NWSs declared their support bilaterally.*

Central Asia

A major breakthrough in Central Asia was the Treaty of Semipalatinsk in 2006, *after nine years of negotiations.* This was made possible by Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan gaining independence in 1991, following the collapse of the USSR, which had formerly controlled and administered the whole region. The region was used extensively by the USSR for various nuclear weapon- related activities- including nuclear testing, missile testing , processing of nuclear fuels, stockpiling of strategic and tactical nuclear weapons, uranium mining and plutonium stockpiling. As *the former UN Under-Secretary-General for Disarmament Affairs, Jayantha Dhanapala, noted, the zone's establishment was "all the more significant given that this region once reportedly hosted over 700 tactical nuclear weapons— not to mention the over 1,400 former Soviet strategic nuclear weapons that Kazakhstan returned to Russia before joining the NPT in 1995".*

The initial proposal for the NWFZ was advanced by Uzbek President Islam Karimov at the 1993 General Assembly, following an early 1992 suggestion from Mongolia that such a zone be created. In 1997 the five Central Asian presidents issued the Almaty Declaration, which called for the creation of an NWFZ. As in the case of the other treaties in populated zones, the treaty bans the development or acquisition of nuclear weapons by regional states and the stationing of nuclear weapons. However, *it goes further by prohibiting the conduct of research on nuclear weapons, and explicitly including the more intrusive IAEA additional protocol safeguards*.

WHAT ARE NPT REVIEW CONFERENCES?

Article VIII (3) of the NPT mandates that: "*Five years after the entry into force of this Treaty, a conference of Parties to the Treaty shall be held ….in order to review the operation of this Treaty…*"

The NPT states parties meet every five years at a Review Conference to assess the implementation of the treaty. There is a Preparatory Committee conference that meets for two weeks in the three years leading up to the Review Conference. During the Preparatory Committee, many working papers are tabled, and the *Chairman drafts a Final Summary statement, but none of these documents are binding*. Rather, these statements, working papers, summaries, and reports are to be used as assessment tools at the Review Conference. Only the Review Conferences produce a consensus document. NGOs have become significant, visible, and important players at these conferences, and we have included the materials that they have circulated at these conferences as well.

Originally intended as a temporary treaty, the NPT stipulates that 25 years after entry into force, a conference shall be convened to decide whether or not the Treaty shall continue indefinitely, or be extended for an additional fixed period or periods. *In 1995, this conference was convened, and a package of decisions extend the Treaty indefinitely. Five years later, at the 2000 Review Conference all 187 governments - including the five official nuclear weapon states - agreed to 13 practical steps for the systematic and progressive disarmament of the world's nuclear weapons. At the 2005 Review Conference, states parties could not agree on a final document, and the five week long conference was considered to be a failure. In 2010, states parties adopted a 64-point action plan in order to move forward.*

The 1995 NPT Review Conference and Extension Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons(NPT) included documents for strengthening the Review Process for the Treaty, Principles and Objectives for Nuclear Non-Proliferation and Disarmament, and extension of the NPT. The 2010 NPT Review Conference released documents regarding the operation of the Treaty (as provided for in its article VIII (3)), taking into account the decisions and the resolution adopted by the 1995 Review and Extension Conference and the Final Document of the 2000 Review Conference - Conclusions and recommendations for follow-on actions. Part II includes organization and work of the Conference and Part III consists of the documents issued at the conference, its summary and list of participants.

NPT Review Conference 1995

Summary

The resolution of the first NPT Review Conference in 1995 stated that it, "*Calls upon all States in the Middle East to take practical steps in appropriate forums aimed at making progress towards, inter alia, the establishment of an effectively verifiable Middle East free of weapons of mass destruction, nuclear, chemical and biological, and their delivery systems, and to refrain from taking any measures that preclude the achievement of this objective;*". It also stated that the development of nuclear-weapon-free zones, especially in regions of tension, such as in the Middle East, as well as the establishment of zones free of all weapons of mass destruction, should be encouraged as a matter of priority, taking into account the specific characteristics of each region. The establishment of additional nuclear-weapon-free zones by the time of the Review Conference in the year 2000 would be welcome.[10]

The 1995 NPT Review and Extension Conference had two objectives: to review the Treaty's operation and to decide on its extension. While not being able to agree on a consensus review of the Treaty's implementation, States parties adopted without a vote a package of decisions. These decisions consisted of (a) elements for a strengthened review process for the Treaty, (b) principles and objectives for nuclear non-proliferation and disarmament, and (c) the indefinite extension of the Treaty; as well as a resolution on the Middle East.

International Reaction

Mr. SPRING (Ireland) said that the international community was faced with the double task of removing any uncertainty about the future of the non-proliferation regime and ensuring that the regime was strengthened to respond to the changing circumstances and risks of the twenty-first century. Ireland's objectives for the Conference and other forums on nuclear disarmament were to see the complete abolition of nuclear weapons, to ensure that those who possessed nuclear weapons and technology did not pass it on to non-nuclear-weapon States, to end the testing of nuclear weapons everywhere, for all time, to end the production and stockpiling of materials for use in the manufacture of nuclear weapons, to strengthen further the detection, safeguard and verification systems, and to see the environmental, health and safety issues associated with the nuclear industry effectively addressed. Some argued that the only way to achieve those objectives was a series of short, conditional extensions of the Treaty, but in his view, any action that placed a question mark over the long-term future of the NPT would be a step backward.

---

[10] http://www.nti.org/media/pdfs/npt95rc.pdf?_=1316545320 | Decisions and Resolution of the 1995 NPT Review Conference

Mr. EVANS (Australia) said that all nations - the nuclear-weapon States, the non-nuclear-weapon States, and even States which had not joined the NPT -had major interests at stake in its continued success. The growth in the Treaty's membership to its current level of 178 States reflected its success in preventing the horizontal spread of nuclear weapons. Australia itself had been seen as one of the countries with the capability and possible intention to develop nuclear weapons, but as a direct consequence of the NPT, had chosen not to pursue that option.

Mr. Kisliak (Russian Federation) (*interpretation from Russian*): The historic Review and Extension Conference of the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) is coming to an end. In the view of the Russian delegation, difficult but extremely important and necessary work has been done by all delegations to achieve agreement in one of the pivotal areas of our time. They have seen to it that joint efforts will be pursued to ensure stability, to preserve civilized rules of behaviour in a nuclear century, and to establish the necessary conditions for the process of nuclear disarmament and broad cooperation in the area of nuclear energy as a whole and for its development.

More country- wise statements in detail, can be found here-

http://www.un.org/Depts/ddar/nptconf/162.htm

NPT Review Conference 2000

Summary

At its third session (10-21 May 1999), the Preparatory Committee for the 2000 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the NonProliferation of Nuclear Weapons invited the Secretary General to prepare for the Conference a background paper on the implementation of the resolution on the Middle East adopted by the 1995 Review and Extension Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, reflecting developments since 1995 with a view to realizing fully the objectives of the resolution.

The 2000 NPT resolution included the reviewing of efforts contributing to the achievement of the aims and objectives of the Middle East peace process (as in the resolution of 1995). It included clauses regarding the acceptance of full-scope International Atomic Energy Agency safeguards on all nuclear activities, realization of universal adherence to the Treaty and efforts contributing to a Middle East zone free of nuclear weapons as well as other weapons of mass destruction- nuclear, chemical and biological- and their delivery systems.

International Reaction

Records of statements released can be found in the following-

- [Statement at Review Conference of the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, by Mohamed ElBaradei, IAEA Director General, 24 April 2000](#)
- [Secretary-General Urges Member States to Reaffirm Commitment to Reduce Dangers of Existing Nuclear Weapons, Further Proliferation, *Press Release*, UN, 24 April 2000](#)
- [Review Conference of Parties to NPT Opens at Headquarters; Much Disarmament Machinery Has "Started to Rust", Secretary-General Warns, *Press Release*, UN, 24 April 2000](#)
- [IAEA Director General Calls for Rededication to Nuclear Non-Proliferation Regime, *Press Release*, 20 April 2000](#)
- [Final documents of the 2000 NPT Review Conference](#)

NPT Review Conference 2010

Summary

The 2010 Review Conference managed to agree on an Action Plan covering the three pillars of the Treaty (nuclear disarmament, nuclear non-proliferation and the peaceful uses of nuclear energy), as well as on the Middle East. The Conference was only able to take note of the substantive review of the operation of the Treaty produced on the responsibility of the President. IAEA Director General, Yukiya Amano, said the IAEA General Conference had adopted resolutions in recent years on the establishment of a nuclear-weapon-free zone in the Middle East and Israeli nuclear capabilities, and that he would take these issues up as well.

The final document called for a 2012 conference of all Middle Eastern states to move forward on a 1995 proposal for a nuclear-free Middle East and for the United Nations secretary general, along with the United States, Russia and Britain, to appoint a facilitator and consult with the countries of the Middle East convening the conference. The United States announced after the Review Conference that the United States, Russia, and the United Kingdom, along with the UN Secretary General, will co-sponsor the meeting and determine a country to host it and an individual to help organize it. The document also called for India, Pakistan and Israel, all holding nuclear weapons but not nonproliferation treaty members, to join the Nuclear Non Proliferation Treaty (NPT).

International Reaction

Mr. Naziri (Islamic Republic of Iran) said that the inalienable right of all States parties to have access to nuclear technology for peaceful purposes without discrimination under article IV of the Treaty emanated from the fact that scientific and technological achievements were the common heritage of humanity and from the need for balance between rights and obligations, which provided incentives for membership and compliance. The right to peaceful use was even more important given the increasing application of nuclear energy and technologies in the fields of human health, medicine, industry, agriculture, environmental protection and sustainable economic development, especially in the developing world.

Mr. Al-Bayati (Iraq), referring to Iraq's working paper on article IV of the Treaty (NPT/CONF.2010/WP.59), said that his Government affirmed the inalienable right of States to use nuclear energy for peaceful purposes and to obtain and transfer nuclear technology without discrimination and without the imposition of any obstacles, binding conditions or selective restrictions. It also emphasized the role of IAEA in assisting States parties, in particular developing countries, to develop the peaceful uses of nuclear energy and urged it to redouble its efforts to that end.

Mr. Wang Qun (China) said that more and more countries saw nuclear energy as a technically proven, clean, safe and economically competitive source of energy and an important option for meeting energy demands. The promotion of the peaceful uses of nuclear energy and the prevention of nuclear weapons proliferation were mutually complementary and reinforcing. Non-proliferation efforts should, however, not undermine the legitimate right of countries, especially developing countries, to the peaceful uses of nuclear energy.

More country- wise statements in detail, can be found here-
http://www.un.org/en/conf/npt/2010/statements/statements.shtml

The final documents of this Review Conference can be found here -
http://www.un.org/en/conf/npt/2010/docs.shtml

SECTION V

HOW & WHAT WILL WE BE DISCUSSING?

GUIDELINES FOR FORMING A NWFZ

Introduction

In 1975 the United Nations General Assembly formulated a set of principles, which should guide states in setting up nuclear-weapon-free zones. These principles were later expanded and included in a consensus report of the United Nations Disarmament Commission issued in 1999.

Link to the Full Consensus Report of the UNDC -
http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/54/42%20(SUPP)

Main Recommendations

1. Nuclear-weapon-free zones should be established on the basis of arrangements freely arrived at by the states in the region concerned. The initiative to establish such a zone should emanate exclusively from states within the region and be pursued by all the states in that region.

2. Assistance should be provided, including through the United Nations, to the states concerned in their efforts to establish a zone.

3. All the states of the region concerned should participate in the negotiations on and the establishment of a zone.

4. The status of a nuclear-weapon-free zone should be respected by all states parties to the Treaty establishing the zone as well as by states outside the region, including the nuclear weapon states and, if there are any, states with territory or that are internationally responsible for territories situated within the zone.

5. The nuclear weapon states should be consulted during the negotiations of each treaty and its relevant protocol(s) in order to facilitate their signature and ratification of the protocol(s) through which they undertake legally binding commitments to the status of the zone and not to use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against states parties to the Treaty.

6. If there are states with territory or that are internationally responsible for territories within the zone, these states should be consulted during the negotiations of each treaty and its relevant protocol(s) with a view to facilitating their signature and ratification of the protocol(s).

7. The process of establishing the zone should take into account all the relevant characteristics of the region concerned.

8. The obligations of the parties should be clearly defined and be legally binding.

9. The arrangements should be in conformity with the principles and rules of international law, including the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea.

10. States parties to a nuclear-weapon-free zone exercising their sovereign rights and without prejudice to the purposes and objectives of such a zone remain free to decide for themselves

11. Nuclear-weapon-free zones should be established on the basis of arrangements freely arrived at by the states in the region concerned. The initiative to establish such a zone should emanate exclusively from states within the region and be pursued by all the states in that region.

12. Assistance should be provided, including through the United Nations, to the states concerned in their efforts to establish a zone.

13. All the states of the region concerned should participate in the negotiations on and the establishment of a zone.

14. The status of a nuclear-weapon-free zone should be respected by all states parties to the Treaty establishing the zone as well as by states outside the region, including the nuclear weapon states and, if there are any, states with territory or that are internationally responsible for territories situated within the zone.

15. The nuclear weapon states should be consulted during the negotiations of each treaty and its relevant protocol(s) in order to facilitate their signature and ratification of the protocol(s) through which they undertake legally binding commitments to the status of the zone and not to use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against states parties to the Treaty.

16. If there are states with territory or that are internationally responsible for territories within the zone, these states should be consulted during the negotiations of each treaty and its relevant protocol(s) with a view to facilitating their signature and ratification of the protocol(s).

17. The process of establishing the zone should take into account all the relevant characteristics of the region concerned.

18. The obligations of the parties should be clearly defined and be legally binding.

19. The arrangements should be in conformity with the principles and rules of international law, including the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea.

20. States parties to a nuclear-weapon-free zone exercising their sovereign rights and without prejudice to the purposes and objectives of such a zone remain free to decide for themselves whether to allow visits by foreign ships and aircrafts to their ports and airfields; allow transit of their airspace by foreign aircraft; and navigation by foreign ships in or over their territorial sea, archipelagic waters or straits that are used for international navigation, while fully honouring the rights of innocent passage, archipelagic sea lane passage or transit passage in straits that are used for international navigation. States parties to the current nuclear-weapon-free zones should ensure that their adherence to other international and regional agreements does not entail any obligation contrary to their obligations under the zone treaties.

21. A nuclear-weapon-free zone should provide for the effective prohibition of the development, manufacturing, control, possession, testing, stationing or transporting by the states parties to the Treaty of any type of nuclear explosive device for any purpose, and should stipulate that states parties to the Treaty do not permit the stationing of any nuclear explosive devices by any other state within the zone.

22. A nuclear-weapon-free zone should provide for effective verification of compliance with the commitments made by the parties to the Treaty. A zone should constitute a geographical entity whose boundaries are to be clearly defined by prospective states parties to the Treaty through consultations with other states concerned, especially in cases where territories in dispute are involved.

23. Nuclear weapon states should, for their part, assume in full their obligations with regard to nuclear-weapon-free zones upon signing and ratifying relevant protocols.

24. A nuclear-weapon-free zone should not prevent the use of nuclear science and technology for peaceful purposes and could also promote international cooperation for the peaceful use of nuclear energy in the zone.

Note

However, given the dissimilar geographical circumstances as well as different political, cultural, economic and strategic considerations of the states concerned, there can be no uniform pattern of denuclearized zones. The differences may relate to the scope of the obligations assumed by the parties; the responsibilities of extra-zonal states; the geographical area subject to

denuclearization; the verification arrangements; and the conditions for the entry into force of the zonal agreement as well as for its denunciation.

SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Disarmament and Proliferation

Note: Most of the summaries have been taken from Wikipedia for easy-to-understand language. Delegates are urged to research from the links given with each country to find points significant in debate in the committee.

Israel

Israel is *believed* to have roughly 80 to 200 nuclear weapons, having first developed the capability in 1967-68. Its nuclear arsenal is believed to be delivered by tactical aircraft—especially American supplied F-15 fighters—or by Jericho ballistic missiles. Israel developed its nuclear capability using a French-supplier reactor at Dimona, in its southern desert. The Dimona complex appears to be mothballed and it not currently making more nuclear weapons.

Israel is not a signatory of the 1968 Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT) and does not permit inspections by the Vienna- based International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). Israel showed interest in developing a nuclear program soon after its creation in 1948. It began secretly constructing its first nuclear reactor and reprocessing plant with the help of the French and British in Dimona in the 1950s. Israel is believed to have officially developed its first nuclear weapon in the 1960s. There have been no confirmed tests of Israeli nuclear weapons; however, on 22 September 1979, Israel may have participated in a nuclear test in the southern Indian Ocean, known as the Vela Incident, named for the American satellite that detected an anonymous flash.

Read More about Israel's Nuclear Scenario

- News about Israel | Reuters
  http://www.reuters.com/places/israel

- NTI Country Profile of Israel - http://www.nti.org/learn/countries/israel/nuclear/

- Article on *Israel's Nuclear Ambiguity* published by Arab Center for Research & Policy Studies | By Mahmoud Muhareb
  http://english.dohainstitute.org/release/1f99a9e8-f8ee-4022-b9e7-e155adb2ebf6

- Concept Note on *Israel's Nuclear Ambiguity* published by The Reut Institute
  http://reut-institute.org/Data/Uploads/PDFVer/20090621%20IL%20-%20Nuclear%20Ambiguity.pdf

- Nuclear Power Plants in Israel | Geological Survey of Israel
  http://www.gsi.gov.il/eng/?CategoryID=313&ArticleID=927

- Resources from *Israel and the Bomb* by Anver Cohen | National Security Archive (US)
  http://nsarchive.gwu.edu/israel/documents/document.htm

- *The Vela Incident* | National Security Archive (US)
  http://nsarchive.gwu.edu/NSAEBB/NSAEBB190/

- *Israeli Nuclear Capabilities* - A Report by the Director General of the International Atomic Energy Agency (2010)
  https://www.iaea.org/About/Policy/GC/GC54/GC54Documents/English/gc54-14_en.pdf

Non-Recognition of Statehood of Israel
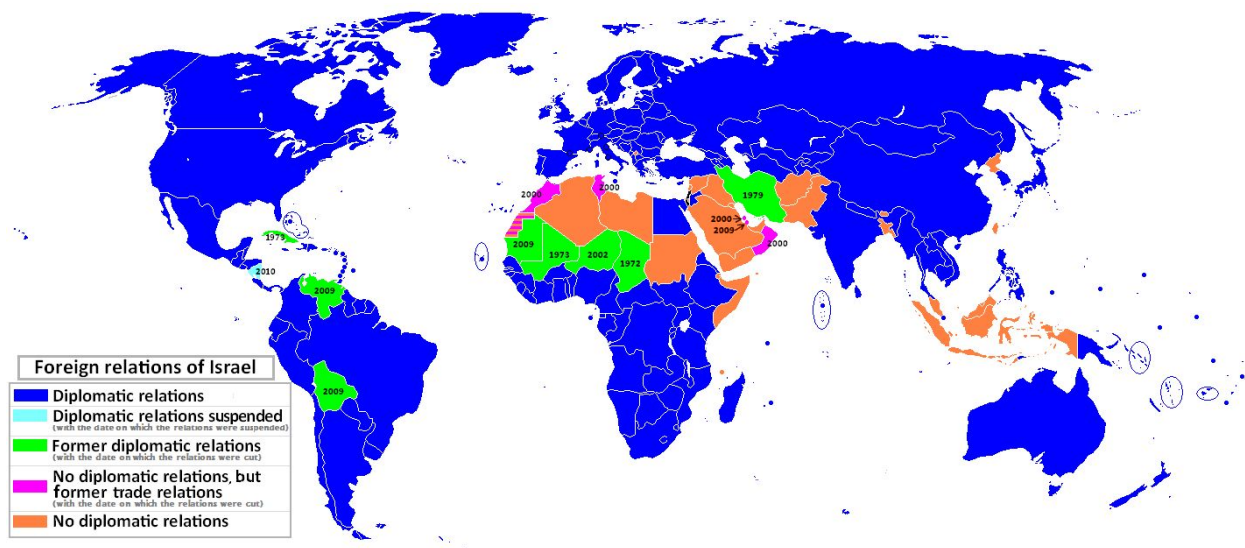
Currently 36 countries do not recognize and/or have foreign relations with Israel. This includes 15 states that did at one point in the past but now, for variety of reasons, do not. This includes several Latin American countries.

The following states have never recognized and/or had foreign relations with Israel:

1. Afghanistan
2. Algeria
3. Bangladesh
4. Bhutan
5. Brunei
6. Comoros
7. Djibouti
8. Indonesia
9. Iraq
10. Kuwait
11. Lebanon
12. Libya
13. Malaysia
14. North Korea
15. Pakistan
16. Saudi Arabia
17. Somalia
18. Sudan
19. Syria
20. United Arab Emirates
21. Yemen

The following countries did have relations with Israel at one point in the past. (Time period of relations and reason for breaking them off are in parenthesis):

1. Bahrain (1996–2000; Second Intifada)
2. Bolivia (1950–2009; Gaza War)
3. Chad (1960–1972; solidarity with the Palestinians)
4. Cuba (1950–1973; Yom Kippur War)
5. Guinea (1959–1967; unknown but presumable related to 1967 Arab-Israeli war)
6. Iran (1948–1951, 1953–1979; Islamic revolution in Iran)
7. Mali (1960–1973; pressure from neighboring countries)
8. Morocco (1994–2000; Second Intifada)
9. Mauritania (2000–2009; Gaza War)
10. Nicaragua (1948–1982, 1992–2010; Gaza flotilla raid)
11. Niger (1960–1973, 1996–2002; Second Intifada)
12. Oman (1996–2000; Second Intifada)
13. Qatar (1996–2009; Gaza War)
14. Tunisia (1996–2000; Second Intifada)
15. Venezuela (1950–2009; Gaza War)

Read More about Israel's Stance on Iran

- *The Iranian Threat - Israeli Foreign Policy* | Israel Ministry of Foreign Affairs
  http://mfa.gov.il/MFA/ForeignPolicy/Iran/Pages/default.aspx

- *Israel and a Nuclear Iran: Implications for Arms Control, Deterrence, and Defense* (2008) | Institute for National Security Studies (Israel)
  http://www.inss.org.il/uploadimages/Import/(FILE)1216203568.pdf

- *The Israeli Strategy against the Iranian Nuclear Project* (2014) | Institute for National Security Studies (Israel)
  http://www.inss.org.il/uploadImages/systemFiles/The%20Israeli%20Strategy%20against%20the%20Iranian%20Nuclear%20Project.pdf

- *Israel, the United States, and the Nuclear Agreement with Iran: Insights and Implications* (2016) | Institute for National Security Studies (Israel)
  http://www.inss.org.il/uploadImages/systemFiles/adkan18_4ENG3_Shalom.pdf

Iran

Unlike Israel, Iran ***does not currently have*** nuclear weapons. In the 1990s and early-2000s, though, it developed the infrastructure required to create fissile materials, the bomb fuel needed to construct nuclear weapons. Currently Iran is engaged in negotiations (the P-6 process) to voluntarily halt its nuclear weapons program in exchange for security guarantees and access to civilian nuclear nuclear energy technology. *A major issue regarding Iran is its nuclear break-out capability, its ability to build nuclear weapons within years or months of a decision.*

The possibility of Iranian nuclear weaponization has led Israeli leaders and Americans to consider preemptive war to slow down this capability. A major debate is how long an attack would slow Iran, and whether it would lead Iranian leaders to increase their commitment to eventually go nuclear. Others say Iran can retaliate against an attack by various non-nuclear means, such as stopping the flow of oil through the Strait of Hormuz or launching massive terrorist and missile attacks.

Iran's nuclear program began during the Cold War campaign known as Atoms for Peace. Under the program, the United States provided Iran with facilities for basic nuclear research in return for Iran signing the NPT in 1968. Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini placed little emphasis on Iran's nuclear ambitions; however, following his death, President Ali Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani and Supreme Leader Ali Hosseini Khamenei sought to revitalize and expand both Iran's overt civilian nuclear program and its covert nuclear development in the 1990s. During this time, Iran again turned to Russia and China for nuclear assistance. The first nuclear centrifuges arrived in Iran in 1988 as part of the A.Q. Kahn network. Following support from the A.Q. Kahn network, by the year 2000, Iran was able to begin constructing pilot- and industrial-scale enrichment facilities at Natanz. In 2002, the National Council of Resistance of Iran officially declared the Natanz project. Since then, international pressure on the country has been steady.

More recently, in 2003, the IAEA reported the Iran had likely begun research into the weaponization of nuclear weapons, although estimates vary widely as to when Iran will be capable of developing one. In June 2010, the Stuxnet computer worm targeted Iranian uranium enrichment facilities at Natanz. Allegedly an Israeli cyber-attack on Iran, Stuxnet caused centrifuges at the Natanz plant to spin rapidly and out of control, effectively destroying them. Experts believe the United States and Israel colluded to infect nuclear facilities in Iran in one of the costliest malware development projects on record.

Inspections by the Vienna-based IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency) continue. Iran permits inspections of most of its nuclear facilities, but not all. The country is currently believed to possess six missiles that are potentially capable of delivering a nuclear weapon, although the country has not yet developed a nuclear bomb. Iran maintains that it is pursuing nuclear research

for purely peaceful means. Iran has developed the technology to enrich uranium, has designed warheads, and has developed delivery systems. The world looked favorably towards the election of President Hasan Rouhani, who has called for the resumption of serious negotiations with the P5+1 on Iran's nuclear programs. Although the talks seem to be stagnating and are often extended, there is significant international optimism that Iran's acquisition of nuclear weapons can be prevented.

Aspect: Skepticism over Iran's Nuclear Deal

Source: Middle East Policy Council

The news of an agreement on limiting Iran's nuclear program has provoked a lively and, at times, heated debate about the implications for the region. Most observers readily acknowledge the historic nature of the agreement between Tehran and the P5+1 world powers, but are divided on the question of whether Iran can be trusted to play a responsible international role. Concerns about Iran's past and present behavior and the possibility of a reinvigorated hardline regime permeate most editorials and op-eds. However, with the exception of some voices within Israel, there has been little written as to what counter-measures countries in the region could or should take.

Read More

- *News about Iran* | Reuters
  http://www.reuters.com/places/iran
- *Iran and the IAEA* | International Atomic Energy Agency
  https://www.iaea.org/newscenter/focus/iran
- *Iran's Nuclear Program* - Backgrounder | Council on Foreign Relations
  http://www.cfr.org/iran/irans-nuclear-program/p16811
- *Country Profile of Iran* | Nuclear Threat Initiative
  http://www.nti.org/learn/countries/iran/nuclear/
- *Iran's Key Nuclear Sites* - Brief | BBC
  http://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-11927720
- *Israeli Strike on Iran* - A Contingency Planning Memorandum | Council on Foreign Relations
  http://www.cfr.org/israel/israeli-strike-iran/p20637

- Series of Two Opinion Pieces by Elliott Abrams | World Affairs Journal
  1. *Israel and Iran: The Grounds for an Israeli Attack*
  http://www.worldaffairsjournal.org/article/israel-and-iran-grounds-israeli-attack and
  2. *Israel and Iran: An Attack Might Be Necessary, but Not Yet*
  http://www.worldaffairsjournal.org/article/israel-and-iran-attack-might-be-necessary-not-yet
- Sixty Years of "Atoms for Peace" and Iran's Nuclear Program by Ariana Rowberry (2013) | Brookings Institute
  https://www.brookings.edu/blog/up-front/2013/12/18/sixty-years-of-atoms-for-peace-and-irans-nuclear-program/
- *The Historic Deal that will Prevent iran from Acquiring a Nuclear Weapon* - A US Government Brief | The White House
  https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/issues/foreign-policy/iran-deal
- *The Iran Nuclear Deal - A Simple Guide* | The New York Times
  https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2015/03/31/world/middleeast/simple-guide-nuclear-talks-iran-us.html?_r=0

Libya

Although Libya has signed the NPT and is subject to IAEA inspections, it began a secret nuclear weapons development program using material provided by the A.Q. Kahn network. Long suspected of working on nuclear weapons, in 2003 Libya gave up its program to produce nuclear weapons material by reprocessing fissile U238. In December 2003, following secret negotiations with the United States and the United Kingdom, Libya announced it would eliminate all of its WMD development programs and allowed IAEA inspectors into the country for verification. All materials related to the development of nuclear weapons and other WMDs were destroyed or removed by the United States. Although Libya's noncompliance with the NPT was reported to the Security Council, no action resulted from this non-compliance.

Read More

- News about Libya | Reuters
  http://www.reuters.com/places/libya

- Country Profile of Libya | Nuclear Threat Initiative
  http://www.nti.org/learn/countries/libya/nuclear/

Iraq

The Iraqi nuclear program began in 1959 with the building of a nuclear power plant. In the 1970s, Iraqi President Saddam Hussein began a covert nuclear weapons program, although the country was never successful in building a nuclear bomb. The state's main focus was developing its chemical and biological arsenal. In 1981, Israel bombed the Osiraq reactor, believed to have been capable of creating weapons- grade material. This delivered a severe set- back to Iraqi nuclear ambitions. U.N. Security Council Resolution 686 and 687 forbade Iraq from developing, producing, or using chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons. In January of 2003, U.N. weapons inspectors concluded that there was no evidence that Iraq had an active nuclear program or that it possessed nuclear weapons. Allegations of WMD—biological weapons-- led to the American-led invasion of Iraq in 2003. After the invasion, no evidence was found of an active Iraqi nuclear or biological weapons program.

Read More

- News about Iraq | Reuters
  http://www.reuters.com/places/iraq

- Iraq and IAEA | International Atomic Energy Agency
  https://www.iaea.org/newscenter/focus/iraq

- Country Profile of Iraq | Nuclear Threat Initiative
  http://www.nti.org/learn/countries/iraq/nuclear/

- Text of the UN Security Resolution 686
  http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/atf/cf/%7B65BFCF9B-6D27-4E9C-8CD3-CF6E4F F96FF9%7D/Iraq%20SRES686.pdf

- Text of the UN Security Resolution 687
  http://www.un.org/Depts/unmovic/documents/687.pdf

- *THE AMERICAN INVASION OF IRAQ: CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES by Raymond HINNEBUSCH* | Centre for Strategic Research, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Turkey
  http://sam.gov.tr/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/Raymond-Hinnebusch.pdf

Syria

Syria has ratified the NPT, although it does maintain a civil nuclear program. On September 6, 2007, Israeli forces launched a unilateral attack, known as Operation Orchard, on an alleged nuclear reactor construction site within Syria's Deir ez-Zor region. In 2008, Syria allowed IAEA inspectors to visit the destroyed site to take samples, the results of which confirmed the presence of man-made uranium consistent with the present of a nuclear reactor. In 2011, the IAEA released a report claiming that the destroyed site was a nuclear reactor, and reported the incident to the UN Security Council as non-compliance with the NPT.

Read More

- News about Syria | Reuters
  http://www.reuters.com/places/syria

- Syria and IAEA | International Atomic Energy Agency
  https://www.iaea.org/newscenter/focus/syria

- Country Profile of Syria | Nuclear Threat Initiative
  http://www.nti.org/learn/countries/syria/nuclear/

- *Syria's Unresolved Nuclear Issues Reemerge in Wake of ISIL Advance and Ongoing Civil War by David Albright, Serena Kelleher-Vergantini, and Sarah Burkhard* (2015) | Institute for Science and International Security
  http://isis-online.org/uploads/isis-reports/documents/Syria_June_30_2015_Final.pdf

- *Iran-North Korea-Syria Ballistic Missile and Nuclear Cooperation* | Brief on Congressional Research Service (US Senate)
  https://fas.org/sgp/crs/nuke/R43480.pdf

Kazakhstan

Following the collapse of the Soviet Union, Kazakhstan did inherit a small nuclear arsenal; however, following the inception of the NPT, it returned its stockpile to Russia and joined the treaty as a non-nuclear weapons state. Some have pointed to Kazakhstan as a model for denuclearization.

Read More

- *Kazakshtan Country Profile* | World Nuclear Association
  http://www.world-nuclear.org/information-library/country-profiles/countries-g-n/kazakhstan.aspx

Kazakhstan has long been a beneficiary of Russian technology, such as this satellite-launching rocket, but unilaterally disarmed all nuclear weapons inherited from the Soviet Union [AFP]

"For forty years, Kazakhstan was a test site for nuclear weapons. The fall-out from these tests at Semipalatinsk - of which over 100 were above ground - has left a terrible legacy. A generation later, the deaths and deformities continue. The threat for us from nuclear weapons is not abstract but all too real. This is why, in August of 1991, months before we attained full independence - and to the joy of our people - President Nazabayev ordered the closure of the Semipalatinsk site. At Kazakhstan's urging, the date of August 29 has now been commemorated officially by the United Nations as the International Day against Nuclear Tests. Kazakhstan followed this move with an even more historic initiative when we voluntarily renounced the world's fourth largest nuclear arsenal, which we inherited on the break-up of the Soviet Union. No country has done more to bring the goals of the NPT closer."

Extract from: *Kazakhstan: The model of nuclear disarmament by Erlan Idrissov* (2014) | *Erlan Idrissov is the erstwhile Foreign Minister of Kazakhstan.*
http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/2014/02/kazakhstan-model-nuclear-disarma-20142142092967469.html

Current Situation

Virtually all countries in the Middle East are signatories of the 1968 Nuclear Non-proliferation Treaty (NPT), the main international barrier to proliferation. The major exception is Israel. Iran is a signatory, but is suspected of developing nuclear weapons capabilities. There is a fear that should Iran test nuclear weapons, other countries in the region will develop comparable capabilities. Likely candidates for follow-on proliferation include: Algeria, Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Turkey.

Crisis related to Extremist Movements, Terrorist Organisations and Violent Non-State Actors

Sources: Middle East Policy Council, DW, Council on Foreign Relations

http://www.mepc.org/about-council
The Middle East Policy Council is a nonprofit organization whose mission is to contribute to American understanding of the political, economic and cultural issues that affect U.S. interests in the Middle East.

http://www.dw.com/en/about-dw/profile/s-30688
Deutsche Welle (DW) is Germany's international broadcaster. Peter Limbourg has been Director General since 2013. Around 1,500 employees and nearly as many freelancers from 60 countries work in DW's headquarters in Bonn and main studio in Berlin.

http://www.cfr.org/about/
The Council on Foreign Relations (CFR) is an independent, nonpartisan membership organization, think tank, and publisher.

Islamic State

In early 2014, the organization then known as the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant swept across northwestern Iraq while simultaneously expanding the territory under its control in eastern Syria. The group, which renamed itself the Islamic State (IS) in June 2014, is led by members of what used to be al-Qaeda in Iraq. It has incorporated Iraqi Sunnis who hold grievances against the Shia-dominated government in Baghdad (mostly former members of Saddam Hussein's regime and alienated tribes) as well as a variety of armed Syrian opposition groups. By mid-2014, IS threatened to further expand in Iraq and Syria, while there were plausible fears that it could cross into neighboring countries, especially Jordan. It has entrenched sectarian divisions and further weakened the state in Iraq and has worsened an already devastating civil war in Syria. It represents a magnet and a safe haven for terrorists in the heart of the Middle East.

Al-Qaeda

Al-Qaeda is considered the parent terrorist organization of global jihad. Its name means "base" or "foundation." Following the death of Osama bin Laden, Al-Qaeda has been headed by the Egyptian Ayman al-Zawahiri. Today, Al-Qaeda is a loose network of largely autonomous cells that are active in different countries. Among them is Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb, which operates mainly in Algeria and northern Mali, and Al-Qaeda in Yemen, a jihadist stronghold. The group ISIS in Iraq split off from Al-Qaeda.

Al-Nusra Front

The Al-Nusra Front is an official offshoot of al-Qaeda. The name means " The Support Front for the People of Levant." It is regarded as one of Syria's main rebel groups. Its stated objectives include the establishment of an Islamist state in Syria, and ultimately throughout the Levant, and in all of the countries in the eastern Mediterranean. The Al-Nusra Front has an estimated 5000-7000 members, and is most active in northern Syria.

Ansar al-Sharia

Ansar al-Sharia organizations in Tunisia and Libya advocate for the implementation of strict Sharia law. Smaller groups of Ansar al-Sharia are also active in a number of other countries in the Middle East and North Africa. The port city of Benghazi is the group's main stronghold in Libya. The group was blamed for an attack on the city's US consulate on September 11, 2012, which killed four people including the US ambassador. Ansar al-Sharia is said to have links to Al-Qaeda, but the group denies these allegations.

Hezbollah

The Lebanese organization Hezbollah was founded in 1982. The Shiite group receives support from Syria and Iran. Hezbollah's military arm is listed as a terrorist organization in the US and the EU. Hezbollah units are fighting in Syria on the side of President Bashar al-Assad's forces.

Hamas

The "Islamic Resistance Movement" Hamas was founded in 1987. The group is the Palestinian branch of the Muslim Brotherhood. Besides the Fatah party led by Palestinian President Mahmoud Abbas, Hamas is the second major group representing Palestinians. Unlike Fatah, Israel has never officially recognized Hamas. Their goal is the destruction of the state of Israel. In the 1990s, they bombarded Israel with suicide bombings. Hamas has controlled the Gaza strip since 2007, while Fatah governs the West Bank. Hamas and Fatah recently agreed to form a unity government. Israel has carried out a wave of arrests of top Hamas members in the West Bank, following the recent kidnapping of Israeli teenagers in the area.

Taliban

The Taliban was toppled in Afghanistan in 2001 for harboring al-Qaeda, but it has not been defeated. With an estimated core of up to sixty thousand fighters, the Taliban remains the most vigorous insurgent group in Afghanistan and holds sway over civilians near its strongholds in the country's south and east. It has also metastasized in neighboring Pakistan, where thousands of fighters in the country's western tribal areas wage war against the government. Now, as the international combat mission in Afghanistan closes, the Taliban threatens to destabilize the region, harbor terrorist groups with global ambitions, and set back human rights and economic development in the areas where it prevails.

Also read: *A Real Force To Be Reckoned With* by Daniel S. Markey, Adjunct Senior Fellow for India, Pakistan, and South Asia | April 20, 2016
http://www.cfr.org/terrorist-organizations-and-networks/real-force-reckoned/p37796

Conflicts ongoing in the Middle East

The Contagiousness of Regional Conflict: A Middle East Case Study

Year: 2016
Authors: GRAEME P. AUTON, JACOB R. SLOBODIEN
Source: Columbia University

Read the Original Case Study for in-depth understanding -
https://jia.sipa.columbia.edu/contagiousness-regional-conflict-middle-east-case-study

Extract:

Several factors contribute to or inhibit the "contagiousness" of regional conflict and irregular warfare, whether conducted at the interstate, extrastate, or intrastate level. Five broad drivers of the diffusion of regional conflict are (1) weak states, (2) anticipated power shifts, regional and domestic, (3) unstable and poorly controlled border regions, (4) large refugee flows, and (5) the religiously-based non-state militant campaign against the state as an organizing principle of world politics. These factors are both endogenous and exogenous to particular states and societies, and must be considered alongside the standard factors considered in international relations literature to be the basis of "dangerous state dyads:" geographic contiguity, absence of alliances, absence of an advanced economy, absence of a democratic polity, and absence of a regionally preponderant power. Two case studies illustrate this argument: the rise of Islamic State, and the awareness of the causes of contagion in regional conflict implicit in Israeli security policy.

The Civil War and ISIS presence in Syria

The civil war in Syria has been going on for the past six years and the situation seems to be getting bleaker with each passing day. What began as protests against President Assad's regime in 2011 quickly escalated into a full-scale war between the Syrian government—backed by Russia and Iran—and anti-government rebels groups. This has led to spillover into neighboring states and intervention by outside parties, particularly in response to the expansion of the Islamic State from Iraq into Syria. Ongoing instability has enabled the expansion of powerful radical elements.

The Islamic State has captured extensive territory in Syria, perpetrated shocking violence against Shia, Christians, other religious minorities, and fellow Sunnis, and beheaded captives from the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and other countries. The Islamic State has recruited as many as 30,000 foreign fighters to join the battle in Syria. Since the start of the war, more than 400,000 people have been killed, 4.8 million have fled the country, and 6.5 million have been

internally displaced. Many refugees have fled to Jordan and Lebanon, straining already weak infrastructure and limited resources. More than 2.7 million Syrians have fled to Turkey, and many attempted to seek refuge in Europe along with other migrants and refugees. Meanwhile, external military intervention—including arms and military equipment, training, air strikes, and even troops—in support of proxies in Syria threatens to prolong a conflict already in its sixth year.

While the Obama administration has ruled out the possibility of using U.S. airstrikes to target Assad, the introduction of Russian air power and U.S. special operations forces presents the threat of further U.S.-Russia military escalation and confrontation. Additionally, ongoing violence could allow terrorist groups already active in Syria, such as the Islamic State, Jabhat Fateh al-Sham, and Hezbollah, to launch attacks against U.S. personnel in the country.

Aspect: Kurds in the Syrian War

Source: Middle East Policy Council

Kurdish groups, both within Syria and throughout the Middle East, undoubtedly see the Syrian war as an opportunity to advance their goals of self-determination. The Kurdish autonomous region of Rojava is held up as proving the viability and necessity of Kurdish self-rule within any future Syria, with Kurdish leader Idris Nassan declaring that "federalism should be the future." In addition, key events throughout the conflict were seized upon by Kurdish leaders in Turkey and Iraq to generate support for their causes. A strong Kurdish presence at the forefront of resistance to ISIS was used to leverage support from the EU and the United States for Kurdish goals. The PKK (Kurdistan Workers' Party) drew on its close relationship with Syria's armed Kurdish group, the YPG (People's Protection Units) to further increase its influence across the border. Masoud Barzani, president of the Kurdistan Region of Iraq and leader of the KDP (Kurdistan Democratic Party), claimed that the Syrian war, combined with the fight against ISIS, heralded an end to the "Sykes-Picot era" and called for a new map of the Middle East — one that would now include an independent, sovereign Kurdistan carved out of northern Iraq. According to Bengio, the turmoil and cracks in the Arab societies since 2011 are juxtaposed with "a growing tendency towards trans-border cooperation and unity" in the Kurdish case.

Also read Institute for Defense Studies and Analyses (IDSA, India) | *Kurds sole 'boots on ground' against Islamic State by Sandhya Jain (2014)*
http://www.idsa.in/idsacomments/KurdssolebootsongroundagainstIslamicState_sjain_091014

SECURITY COUNCIL REPORT.ORG | Important UN Documents for Syria
http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/un-documents/syria/

War Against the ISIS in Iraq

In June 2014, the Islamic State advanced into Iraq from Syria and took over parts of the Anbar Province. In August 2014, President Barack Obama authorized targeted airstrikes against Islamic State militants in Iraq and Syria. The United States formed an international coalition that includes more than sixty countries to counter the Islamic State. Regional forces launched a major offensive to regain Islamic State–controlled territory, but the group continues to hold large swaths of territory and launch terror attacks region-wide. The Iraqi Army—with support from local tribes, the Kurdish Peshmerga, and the international coalition—began fighting to retake Anbar Province following the liberation of Tikrit in April 2015. The following month, however, Islamic State militants captured Ramadi. Since operations began against the self-proclaimed Islamic State in August 2014, the U.S.-led international coalition has conducted over fourteen thousand airstrikes in Iraq and Syria.

As of August 2016, the Islamic State had lost 47 percent of its territory in Iraq, according to the U.S. Department of State. Significant coalition gains were also made in late December 2015, when Iraqi security forces retook control of the strategic city of Ramadi, capital of the Anbar Province in western Iraq. The United States and the international coalition seek to loosen the Islamic State's control and to establish a stable Iraq. There is a larger concern that the current conflict will lead to the breakup of Iraq and that sectarian tension will plague the region for years to come, possibly expanding into a proxy conflict among the various international groups. The number of persons of concern—groups to whom the United Nations has extended its protection and/or assistance services—has also increased in recent years, as nearly 4.4 million people have fled their homes since January 2014. The United Nations estimates that 1.2 million Iraqis could be uprooted in the battle for Mosul.

Aspect: Concerns about Sunnis in Mosul
Source: Middle East Policy Council
Four months have passed since the start of a sustained Iraqi army offensive against the so-called Islamic State (IS) in the city of Mosul. Despite the progress the Iraqis have made, there remains a widespread fear that the liberated Sunni population may find themselves victimized by Shia militias backed by Iran. But political marginalization looms as well, as declarations by Iraqi Shia politicians calling for greater central political control are seen with suspicion by Iraqi Sunnis, many of whom are concerned about missing out politically and economically in an Iraq unified under a pro-Iran regime. This distrust, together with longstanding systemic weakness in the state (including economic and political corruption), is likely to make the post-IS rebuilding phase in Mosul a difficult one. Read More a. *UN Security Council Press Statement on ISIL's Destruction of Religious and Cultural Artefacts in Mosul (27 February 2015); b.* UN NEWS CENTRE | *Iraq: major relief effort underway in north as UN envoy warns against targeting of Sunnis in south (20 August 2014)*

War In Yemen

Internal political instability, backlash against U.S. counterterrorism operations, and interference by neighboring states has contributed to rising violence and fracturing in Yemen. The country faces an insurgency led by the Houthis, a Shiite rebel group with links to Iran and a history of rising up against the Sunni government.

In September 2014, Houthi insurgents took control of Yemen's capital, Sanaa, demanding lower fuel prices and a new government. Following failed negotiations, the rebels seized the presidential palace in January 2015, leading President Abd Rabbuh Mansur Hadi and his government to resign. Beginning in March 2015, a coalition of Gulf states led by Saudi Arabia launched a campaign of airstrikes against the Houthi insurgent group with U.S. logistical and intelligence support. Hadi rescinded his resignation and returned to Yemen in September 2015. UN-brokered peace talks between allied Houthi rebels and the internationally recognized Yemeni government stalled in the summer of 2016. In late July, the Houthis and ousted President Ali Abdullah Saleh's government and announced the formation of a "political council" to govern Sanaa, Yemen's capital and largest city, and much of north Yemen.

Fighting continues between rebels and the Saudi-backed government of President Abed Rabbo Mansour Hadi. The United States is deeply invested in combating terrorism and violent extremism in Yemen. It has collaborated with the Yemeni government on counterterrorism since the 2000 bombing of the USS Cole, beginning drone strikes there in 2002. However, the overall U.S. strategy for counterterrorism in Yemen relies heavily on Yemeni ground forces, a relationship currently suspended due to government's loss of legitimacy.

The Houthi insurgency—and growing chaos within Yemen—increases the risks posed by Yemeni terrorism, while simultaneously threatening the United States' ability to deal with it.

Read More

Yemen conflict: How bad is the humanitarian crisis? | BBC
http://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-34011187

THE 'DECISIVE STORM' COALITION

Saudi Arabia, along with 9 other countries, launched a military operation against the Houthi militia. Gulf States - with the exception of Oman - are providing military support.

Yemen's airspace as a **"restricted area"** after Saudi King Salman bin Abdulaziz ordered the airstrikes. The air campaign has already resulted in the elimination of several Houthi leaders.

Saudi Defense Minister Prince Mohammed bin Salman had warned Ahmed Ali Abdullah Saleh, the son of Yemen's former President Ali Abdullah Saleh, against advancing toward Aden.

The Houthis have joined force with the loyalists of former President Saleh in their offensive to take control of Yemen.

Morocco contributed 6 fighter jets

Kuwait contributed 15 fighter jets

Pakistan Warships & air support (Naval and aerial support to the operation)

Jordan contributed 6 fighter jets

Egypt 4 Warships & air support (Naval and aerial support to the operation)

Saudi Arabia deployed: 100 fighter jets, 150,000 soldiers and other navy units

Sudan contributed 3 fighter jets

Bahrain contributed 15 fighter jets

Qatar contributed 10 fighter jets

UAE contributed 30 fighter jets

TURKEY, TUNISIA, SYRIA, IRAQ, IRAN, MOROCCO, ALGERIA, LYBIA, EGYPT, KUWAIT, BAHRAIN, QATAR, U.A.E., SAUDI ARABIA, OMAN, YEMEN, NIGER, SUDAN, PAKISTAN, JORDAN

U.S. support

President Obama has authorized the provision of logistical and intelligence support to GCC-led military operations against the Houthis.

Saudi Arabia's Ambassador to Washington Adel al-Jubeir announced the kingdom had launched a military operation involving air strikes in Yemen against Houthi fighters who have tightened their grip on the southern city of Aden where Hadi had taken refuge. Jubeir said the 10-country coalition had joined in the military campaign in a bid "to protect and defend the legitimate government" of Hadi.

The Israeli-Palestinian Conflict
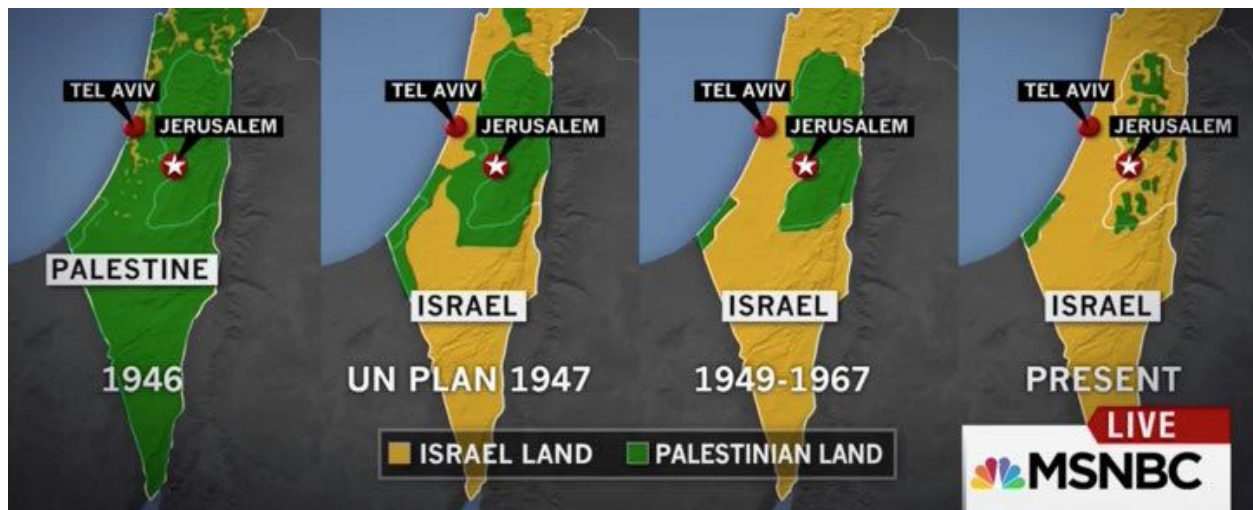
The Israeli-Palestinian conflict dates back to the end of the nineteenth century, primarily as a conflict over territory. After the 1948 Arab-Israeli war, the Holy Land was divided into three parts: the State of Israel, the West Bank (of the Jordan River), and the Gaza Strip. Successive wars resulted in minor shifts of territory until the Yom Kippur War in October 1973, when Egypt and Syria launched a surprise attack on Israel because of Israel's occupation of the Sinai Peninsula and the Golan Heights. The conflict was calmed by the Camp David Accords in 1979, which bound Egypt and Israel in a peace treaty.

A fresh wave of violence between Israelis and Palestinians emerged after clashes erupted at a Jerusalem holy site in September 2015. Amidst calls from the United Nations Security Council to ease tensions, Palestinian President Mahmoud Abbas dramatically announced that Palestine could no longer be bound by the Oslo Accords, which provided the framework for an Israeli-Palestinian peace deal since 1993. There is concern that a third intifada could break out if the ceasefire does not hold and the renewed October 2015 tensions escalate into large scale violence. The United States has an interest in protecting the security of its long-term ally Israel and achieving a lasting deal between Israel and the Palestinian territories, which would improve regional security.

Aspect: Israel, Palestine and Non-Territorial Governance

Source: Middle East Policy Council

The conflict over the future of the West Bank and Gaza Strip has long been at a stalemate. While many issues make a two-state solution difficult, particularly the intertwined controversies of settlements, borders and security, most core concerns are tied to land. With growing pessimism on all sides,1 voices across the political spectrum, both in Israel and among Palestinians, have discussed the need for alternatives to a two-state solution. While usually framed in terms of justice or pragmatism, less discussed is what such ideas might mean in terms of governance. Even with a two-state solution, issues about divided-identity communities would likely remain as large numbers of Israeli citizens could maintain residence on the West Bank, and Israeli Arabs/Palestinians might seek to forge ties with a new Palestinian state. While not endorsing any solution, this article reflects on how cases of non-territorial governance can provide models and lessons relevant to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict.

Aspect: Israeli Settlements Plan and International Reactions

Source: Middle East Policy Council

The Israeli government's settlement policy has come under renewed scrutiny following the approval of new construction in the Occupied Territories. The United Nations and other international organizations, including the European Union, have openly expressed their displeasure with Prime Minister Benyamin Netanyahu's decision to move forward with such plans. However, it is unclear whether international pressure will have any effect on the issue. Meanwhile, regional observers, including many Israeli commentators and dailies, have carried on a lively conversation about the appropriateness of the renewed settlement activity, as well as the possibility of a longer term solution.

Read More about the Israel-Palestine Issue

***UNISPAL: The [United Nations Information System](#)** on the Question of Palestine (UNISPAL) was established and is being developed by the Division for Palestinian Rights in response to successive General Assembly mandates. The main collection contains the texts of current and historical United Nations material concerning the question of Palestine and other issues related to the Middle East situation and the search for peace. UNISPAL contains the English texts with a growing number in the other official UN languages. UNISPAL-[Select](#) contains a selection of the most important UN documents on the Palestine issue. The [Special Focus](#) section features highlights selected key issues (UN status of Palestine, separation wall, Road Map, etc.)*

Additional information can be found at the [Question of Palestine](#) site, also maintained by the Division. The site includes a brief [history](#) of the issue, a glossary of related terms, a [calendar](#) of upcoming and recent events and an overview of [activities](#) in the General Assembly, Security Council and other United Nations bodies with regard to the question of Palestine. Moreover, the site contains links to relevant United Nations system web pages and the Division's [civil society web site](#).

UN NEWS CENTRE | *Two-state solution to Israel-Palestine conflict at risk of giving way to 'one-state reality,' warns Ban (15 September 2016)*
https://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=54925#.WNlK5kIRrVo

UN MEETINGS COVERAGE AND PRESS RELEASES | *Related to the Palestinian Issue*
https://www.un.org/press/en/theme/palestinian-issues

SECURITYCOUNCILREPORT.ORG | *Important UN Documents for Israel-Palestine Issue*
http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/un-documents/israelpalestine/

UNSC RESOLUTION 2334 ON ISRAELI SETTLEMENTS (23 DEC 2016)
http://www.un.org/webcast/pdfs/SRES2334-2016.pdf

UN PRESS RELEASE (23 DEC 2016) | *Israel's Settlements Have No Legal Validity, Constitute Flagrant Violation of International Law, Security Council Reaffirms*
https://www.un.org/press/en/2016/sc12657.doc.htm

THANK YOU!